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HUMAN RESOURCES

No. 32

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LABOR

ECONOMIC ASPECT OF POPULATION DESCRIBED IN NEW BOOK

Novosibirsk EKONOMIKA I ORGANIZATSIYA PROMYSHLENNOGO PROIZVODSTVA in Russian No 3, Mar 81 pp 162-168

/Review by Candidate of Economic Science V. A. Kalmyk, chief of a sector of the Institute of Economics and the Organization of Industrial Production of the Siberian Department of the USSR Academy of Sciences, of the book "Razvitiye narodonaseleniya (ekonomicheskiy aspekt)" /The Development of the Population (The Economic Aspect)7 by Mikhail Yakovlevich Sonin, Moscow, Izdatel'stvo "Statistika", 1980, 352 pages (Novosibirsk): "The Seven Scientific Principles of Professor Sonin"7

/Text7 Izdatel'stvo "Statistika" has published a collection of scientific works of Mikhail Yakovlevich Sonin. The collection is devoted to two problems: the reproduction of the population and the reproduction of manpower resources. And this is not by chance: the 15 years of applied scientific work of the author in USSR Gosplan were connected with the compilation of a balance of the manpower resources of our country. In the works of M. Ya. Sonin the main place is assigned to the balance of manpower, which, as S. G. Strumilin aptly expressed it, "as in a clenched fist concentrates in the labor proportions all the main political tasks and economic ideas of the coming planning period." And, having worked at the Institute of Economics of the USSR Academy of Sciences from 1950 to this day, he has continued research primarily in namely this sphere.

In a short review it is difficult to cover all the abundance of the scientific ideas and results of the concrete sociological studies of the author. Therefore let us dwell on the seven main principles from which, in our opinion, the scientific conception of Professor Sonin is formed.

1. The Employment of the Population. The employment of the able-bodied population is the main trait of the population under socialism. Its nature and degree have a decisive influence on the reproduction of the population--the birth rate, death rate, migratory mobility, the type of settlement and others in combination with other socio-economic, cultural historical and biological factors. The organization of the efficient use of the able-bodied population on the basis of the principles of universal and planned employment remains an urgent problem of the practical building of communism. Here the types of employment should meet both the social and the individual needs of workers for labor.

2. The Balance of Manpower. The limits of able-bodied age are flexible and are determined by a set of socio-economic conditions. The effect of the law of the

change of labor and developed polytechnical education are creating new opportunities for the extension of the effect of the age limits of manpower resources with the simultaneous facilitation of working conditions. The present technical base and the organization of labor permit the combined use of the labor of men, women, adolescents and people of retirement age. Hence stems the need to have balances of manpower in a fractional demographic and administrative economic division.

The fact that this suggestion, which was advanced by the author two decades ago, has again been placed on the agenda, attests to the difficulties of solving the problem. As the All-Union Conference on the Development of the Productive Forces of Siberia (June 1980) showed, for the construction of territorial balances in rural rayons and cities it is necessary to reinforce the labor departments attached to city and oblast soviet executive committees with personnel, to say nothing of the need to improve the procedural principles on the compilation of annual report and forecasting balances. Incidentally, the article "The Socio-Economic Forecasting of the Able-Bodied Population," which is published in the collection, will aid this work.

Since not only working people, but also students are grouped with the employed population in our country, there is no need to exclude the latter from the body of manpower resources. The combination of labor and studies as a progressive trend requires the consideration of not only the amount of manpower resources, but also the available working time which the groups of the population have. It should be emphasized that M. Ya. Sonin consistently defends the idea of the need to compile balances of working time. Their formulation and use for the utmost economy and efficient use of working time are one of the pressing problems.

3. Skilled Labor. The educational description of manpower resources is becoming more and more significant with each year: the contribution of the education of the able-bodied population to the increase of the social productivity of labor is increasing with technical progress. This contribution can increase even more if the structure of education is optimized, namely: the correlation between general and vocational education is changed in favor of the latter; the gaps in the level of education of the workers of different sectors of the national economy and regions of the country are reduced; conformity between the demands of production on the level of education and the level of knowledge is achieved, the quality of education is increased and the accelerated increase of the skills of young people is achieved. The author proposes to create at enterprises an atmosphere of greater conduciveness to the increase of the actual skills of workers regardless of the correlation of the category of jobs and the category of the worker.

In our opinion, the author's proposal on broadening the scope of the training of specialists with a higher education under the conditions of full employment, that is, when the demand for a job in one's specialty is fully met, is debatable. What do you do if everyone wants to have the corresponding workplaces? In the section of the book "The Evaluation of the Level and Structure of the Education of the Population of the USSR" the more moderate aim of the author at a slight lead of the rate of the training of personnel over economic needs is set forth and the artifically exaggerated need of enterprises for engineering positions is criticized.

4. Female Labor. Even far from all economists know that in 1959-1970 women, who were previously employed in housekeeping and in the private subsidiary sector,

accounted for a large portion of the increase of the number of workers and employees. As a result, working women make up today more than half of those employed in the national economy. The proportion of female labor in consumer services is especially large. However, the freeing of women from labor-intensive physical jobs is still proceeding extremely slowly. The majority of working women came from the sphere of household labor and at the same time housework fell on their shoulders as an additional workload; therefore, the skill of women workers of industrial labor is lower than that of men on the average by one grade category. It is also lower in construction, where women have taken up workplaces of unskilled labor due to the shortage of male manpower. The low skill of female physical labor adversely affected the social productivity of labor in our country, having slowed the rate of its increase. We believe that this is not the main cause of the slowing of the rate of growth of the economy. At the same time the skill of personnel is becoming a more and more significant factor of production efficiency, and it is necessary to improve as quickly as possible the working conditions of women, to be concerned about the increase of their skill and the improvement of their occupational and skills structure. Back in 1973 M. Ya. Sonin proposed to reduce substantially the extensive use of female labor, to develop female ergonomics persistently, that is, to adapt production conditions to the features of the female body. During the 11th Five-Year Plan, with the retirement of a large number of women who were born in 1925-1930, the work on solving this problem will become unavoidable. The author proposes to increase the skill of working family women during their working time and with the retention of the average monthly wage.

While regarding female labor as a component of national labor, M. Ya. Sonin reminds us that it is impossible to ignore the function of women in the reproduction of new generations. This circumstance requires the reduction of their overall workload first of all on the basis of the development of consumer services and the shortening of the workday. The increase of the efficiency of female labor should keep pace with the improvement of working conditions and maternity and child protection.

Socialist society is interested in increasing the birth rate without detriment to the health of mothers and the raising of children. Five factors govern the birth rate being planned by families: the needs for labor, the improvement of housing conditions, children, free time and education. The change in the importance of the factors predetermines the change in the level of the birth rate. During the 1960's and 1970's the need for children for young families was relegated to one of the last places. Meanwhile under the conditions of the shortage of manpower resources measures aimed at stimulating the birth rate in the regions of the country with the greatest shortage of labor (the RSFSR, the Belorussian SSR, the Ukrainian SSR) are necessary. In the estimation of the author, the economic aspect of the stimulation of the birth rate will disappear in the future, when the country has changed over completely to the intensive path of development. To this it should be added that the demographic policy is nevertheless not losing its social significance, by helping in realizing the need for children as a source of family happiness.

5. The Job Placement of Retirees. Under socialism serious attention should be devoted to extending the capacity of a person for work under the conditions of the facilitation of labor, but without increasing the formal limits of working age, that is, with the right of retirees to choose to work or not to work. With the increase of the "maturity" of the population (the decrease of the proportion of people of young ages) and the decrease of the amounts of its natural growth the

question of the labor of people of formally "nonable-bodied" age as one of the sources of the supplement of manpower is being urgently discussed. According to the calculations of the author, by 1990 the level of employment of people of retirement age (its first 5-year period, that is, men 60-64 years old and women 55-59 years old) will be 60 percent, if such forms of employment as work at home, with a partial workday and a partial week are extended.

This stand is not universally recognized. There are scholars, for example, V. G. Kostakov,[1] who claim that in the future the labor of retirees in social production will be limited, since it is less skilled and mobile and, what is the main thing, is not aimed at the intensification of production and labor. The author of these lines also adheres to the latter point of view rather than the former. Although in recent years a number of new steps on pension security due to old age have been taken, they are inadequate for a fundamental change of the existing tendency for the proportion of retirees among working people to decrease. This especially concerns the countryside, where labor in physical production remains difficult. But the main thing lies not in the extent of the employment of retirees, but in the creation of the conditions for their efficient job placement. M. Ya. Sonin proposes a system of measures, the implementation of which, in his opinion, will help to solve this problem.

6. The "Sobering Up" of Labor Processes. The number of years of the active labor life for men is equal to approximately 39 years and for women--40 years. In fact the period of labor activity is less due to a number of reasons (the death rate at working age, injury and diseases which lead to disability--complete and partial, alcoholism and others).

In the collection much space is devoted to the analysis of these reasons. Thus, the author convincingly shows that alcoholism in all forms is a direct and immediate source of the higher death rate (this cause is in second place after hypodynamia /the limitation of motor activity/) and leads to a decrease of the growth of labor productivity, injury, the decrease of labor discipline and the increase of the turnover of manpower. Crime, the predisposition of children to mental illnesses and the breakdown of the family are among the most serious social consequences of alcoholism. According to the data of sociological studies, alcoholism is the most frequent cause of divorces. It is clear that this affects the decline of the birth rate, the deterioration of health and, in the end, the quality of manpower.

An article on losses from alcoholism and the combatting of them, which was written at one time by M. Ya. Sonin jointly with S. G. Strumilin, was published in EKO, No 4, 1974. In the years that have passed its topicality has not decreased. The spread of alcoholism to broad strata of the population, including adolescents and women, is becoming more and more acute, while the consequences--economic and social--continue to do unjustified harm to society. According to the estimates of the author, the complete "sobering up" of labor processes could provide an increase of labor productivity of approximately 10 percent. Among the probable causes of alcoholism the need to reduce tension, the inability or impossibility of using free

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1. V. G. Kostakov, "Prognoz zanyatosti naseleniya (metodologicheskiye osnovy)" /The Forecast of the Employment of the Population (Methodological Principles)/, Moscow, "Ekonomika", 1979.

time wisely and formed habits are put in first place. The main conclusion of this article is the need for the prevention of this social evil, and measures of a medical and socio-economic nature are more important and more effective than any administrative measures.

7. Manpower Reserves. The need for manpower reserves in our country is an original statement of the question by M. Ya. Sonin. The shortage of manpower is a manifestation of the disparity between the accumulation of physical assets and manpower resources. The creation of manpower reserves is one of the ways of eliminating it. They can be both internal and external. There is no need to prove that in our country there are quite many internal reserves (the maintenance of excess manpower at enterprises, losses of working time and others). M. Ya. Sonin assigns to the active group of external reserves people of retirement age, who have maintained complete or partial fitness for work, as well as the students of vocational and technical schools and workers who are released from enterprises as a result of technical progress. During the years of the 11th Five-Year Plan the state system of the retraining of skilled personnel, which was proposed by the author, can serve as one of the main external reserves of manpower resources for the reinforcement of enterprises with manpower. M. Ya. Sonin convincingly substantiates the need for the promulgation of a special law on the procedure of the organized redistribution of manpower, its subsequent training and job placement.

The author of the book has already published in the pages of EKO, No 4, 1977, the article "Use Manpower Resources Efficiently," in which he dwelled in detail on the problems of the shortage of manpower, its causes and consequences. Among the consequences of the shortage he notes the idle times of equipment, the slowing of the growth rate of production, the increase of the turnover and thereby losses of working time and the relaxation of labor discipline. The main cause of the shortage, in his opinion (and we are of the same opinion), is the inadequate retooling of production and the slow decrease of those employed in manual and difficult physical labor.

The role of the system of the organized redistribution of personnel and the creation of reserves of manpower resources increases under the conditions of a shortage of personnel. The imbalance between the need for personnel and the possibilities of meeting it with a breakdown both by sectors and by territories is displayed not only when implementing plans, but already at the stage of their drafting, if the relationships between the economic and social need for labor are not taken into account. A one-sided conception, for example, the disregard of the social factor, leads to great disproportions in the development of the national economy. The need of the population for workplaces of a specific content and quality, for living conditions and for the training and raising of children belongs to the social factors. For the balancing of manpower resources and the development of production the author proposes to elaborate advanced standards of specific capital investments (per workplace), which are differentiated by sectors and regions of the country.

In our coutry the extensive sources of the formation of manpower are almost exhausted, and the intensive sources, namely the increase of the educational and occupational skills level of manpower, are acquiring predominant importance. That is why so much space in the book is devoted to the elaboration of theoretical and practical questions of increasing the efficiency of the formation, distribution and use of living labor.

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CALCULATION OF PROFIT, NET OUTPUT STANDARDS

Moscow PLANOVOYE KHOZYAYSTVO in Russian No 4, Apr 81 pp 104-107

/Article by N. Fishkin, chief of a department of the Planning and Design Bureau of the Ukrstal'konstruktsiya Association (Dnepropetrovsk): "On the Calculation of the Standards of Net Output"; commentary by Yu. Krotov, deputy chief of a subdepartment of USSR Gosplan/

> /Text/ The editorial board has received the note (published below) of N. Fishkin, chief of a department of the Planning and Design Bureau of the Ukrstal'konstruktsiya Association, in which questions of the different profitability of products are touched upon.
>
> In connection with the urgency of these questions, which stem from the implementation in the national economy of the measures stipulated by the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers of 12 July 1979, "On Improving Planning and Strengthening the Influence of the Economic Mechanism on Increasing Production Efficiency and Work Quality," the editorial board is publishing a commentary to the article, which was prepared by Yu. Krotov, deputy chief of a subdepartment of USSR Gosplan.

The established method of calculating the profit, which is liable to inclusion in the standard of the net output, according to the standards of the profitability, which are authorized according to the price lists (groups) of output as a percentage of the production cost less only the direct material expenditures,[1] to a certain extent smoothes out the levels of profitability between different items, but the breakdown of items into profitable and unprofitable items, although to a lesser extent, still remains.

In confirming the expressed idea, let us cite a specific example.

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[1] See "Methodological Instructions on the Procedure of Elaborating and Using in Planning the Indicator of the Net Output (Standard)," in the collection of documents "Sovershenstvovaniye khozyaystvennogo mekhanizma" /The Improvement of the Economic Mechanism/, Moscow, Izdatel'stvo "Pravda", 1980, p 71.

In price list No 01-06 "Wholesale Prices for Steel Structural Members" there are the items: columns weighing up to 15 tons (paragraph 8) and crane booms weighing 1-3 tons (paragraph 27).

The production cost of 1 ton of the structural members without the direct material expenditures is respectively 79 and 25 rubles.

The average profitability (as a percentage of the production cost without the direct material expenditures) of the two cited types of items is 50 percent (according to the profitability stipulated by the price list in the amount of 14.4 percent of the full production cost).

The amount of the profit with respect to the production cost without the direct material expenditures for the columns will be 39.5 rubles (79 X 50/100), the crane booms--12.5 rubles (25 X 50/100), while the amount of the wage per ton of structural members will be respectively 49.7 and 9.6 rubles.

The profitability of the production of these items (as a percentage of the wage) will be equal to 79 percent (39.5 X 100/49.7) and 130 percent (12.5 X 100/9.6).

As is evident from the example, with the same profitability, which is calculated as a percentage of the production cost without the direct material expenditures, the profitability as a percentage of the wage differs substantially. For crane booms it is 64.5 percent higher than for columns (/130 X 100/79/ - 100).

Consequently, in order to eliminate the division of items into profitable and unprofitable items and to establish an identical profitability for all the items which are specified in the sectorial price lists, it is necessary to calculate the profit according to the standards of the profitability as a percentage of the wage, and not of the production cost without the direct material expenditures. Here the amount of work of planning services on the making of various calculations of the structural shifts, which are caused by a different labor-output ratio of the items being produced, decreases sharply.

The opinion that the amount of the profit, which is calculated according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the wage, at technically highly equipped enterprises, which have a relatively low labor-output ratio per unit of production, in many instances is inadequate for making by means of their own assets the payment for capital or deductions for the economic stimulation funds,[2] arouses objection.

The enterprises, which have been fitted out with highly productive equipment and have a lower labor-output ratio, can and should increase the output of products by means of a higher yield from this equipment and thereby have the amount of profit, which is necessary for the formation of the economic stimulation funds, to say nothing of the payment for capital.

In the mentioned Methodological Instructions it is stated that the standards for labor should be average sectorial standards, and not individual standards, since the actual decrease of the labor expenditures at individual enterprises might not substantially affect the decrease of the amount of the profit.

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[2] See PLANOVOYE KHOZYAYSTVO, No 11, 1979, p 32.

Another thing should also be noted. It is not advisable to establish the amount of the profit separately—for the formation of the wholesale price and for the calculation of the standard of the net output. It is necessary to determine it for each item in the same amount and only as a percentage of the wage. Taking into account that the system of the formation of the standard of profitability changes, since in the method it is proposed to calculate the profitability not as a percentage of the full production cost, as is now customary, but as a percentage of the production cost without the direct material expenditures, in practice it is possible to calculate the standard of the profitability both in the wholesale price and in the standard of the net output as a percentage of the wage.

For the purpose of eliminating one of the main negative aspects of the planning of production volumes in monetary terms--the existence of profitable and unprofitable items--it is efficient to determine the amount of the profit according to the standard of the profitability only as a percentage of the wage, which will ensure the equal profitability of all items.

/Commentary/

The note of N. Fishkin touches upon one of the most fundamental questions of the theory and practice of the use of not only the indicator of the standard net output, but also all pricing: how to determine the standard amount of the profit within the wholesale prices and the standards of the net output--according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost (the production cost without the direct material expenditures) or as a percentage of the amount of the wage per unit of output. This is a most debatable question, on which there are the largest number of critical comments which are made with reference to the adopted method of elaborating and using in planning the indicator of the standard net otuput.

N. Fishkin believes that the estimated amount of the profit both in the standard of the wholesale price and in the standard of the net output per unit of an item should be established on the basis of the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the wage. Here he is guided primarily by the practical aspect of the question: the desire to eliminate the division of items into profitable and unprofitable items. In the opinion of N. Fishkin, the method of establishing the profit according to the level of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost, although substantially leveling this different profitability as compared with its level under the conditions of the use of the indicator of the commodity output, does not completely eliminate it.

Other specialists, while defending, like N. Fishkin, this method of forming the profit within the wholesale prices and the standards of the net output, substantiate its need on the basis of the thesis of K. Marx that the surplus product is created only by living labor.

At first glance the arguments of the specialists, who defend the need for the establishment of the amount of the profit with the wholesale prices and the standards of the net output according to the profitability as a percentage of the wage, are quite convincing. Indeed, when forming the profit according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost a certain different profitability of items is still inevitable. The Marxist thesis about the labor basis of the surplus product is also unquestionable. And still, in spite of the seemingly obvious validity, this method cannot be used in practical pricing and economic planning work for the following reasons.

The prices for items should not only cover the socially necessary expenditures on their production, but also ensure the formation of a profit from the standpoint of the meeting of the entire set of cost accounting requirements. This will increase the economic responsibility of production associations (enterprises), industrial associations and ministries for the results of financial and economic operations and will increase their interest in the most efficient use of the available resources. Thus, the amount of the profit of a normally operating subdivision of industry should ensure the payment to the budget of the fee for productive capital, the deductions for economic stimulation funds, the replenishment of the working capital, the formation of the unified fund for the development of science and technology, the financing of capital investments and other planned expenditures on the development of production.

The formation of the profit within the wholesale prices on the basis of the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the wage does not make it possible to implement complete cost accounting in sectors with a high capital-labor ratio, that is, in capital-intensive sectors. This would first of all concern ferrous and nonferrous metallurgy, the petrochemical, chemical and pulp and paper industries. Thus, in industry in 1979 with an average capital-labor ratio of 13,000 rubles per industrial worker engaged directly in production the corresponding indicator was: in ferrous and nonferrous metallurgy about 30,000 rubles, in the petrochemical, chemical and pulp and paper industries about 29,000 rubles, in the food and the meat and dairy industries approximately 10,000 rubles and in light industry 5,000 rubles.

At enterprises with a high capital-labor ratio the amount of the received profit would be inadequate for meeting the enumerated cost accounting needs. It would be necessary either to exclude the principle of the need to pay for capital or to leave it, but to renounce the conditions of the covering of other financial needs from their own profit. For example, when forming the profit within the price of products according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the wage the total amount of the profit from industrial activity in the Ministry of the Petroleum Refining and Petrochemical Industry would decrease by a factor of 3.4, and there would be enough of it only for the fee for capital and the deductions for the economic stimulation funds.

It is quite obvious that only that method of forming the profit in the price of an item, which ensures the functioning of production on the basis of complete cost accounting self-sufficiency, is acceptable. But this is possible only with the formation of the profit within the wholesale price according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost, which includes all the socially necessary expenditures on the production of a unit of output less the direct material expenditures, but including the expenditures on the operation of the means of labor, among which the amortization deductions are the main ones.

N. Fishkin, in criticizing the method of forming the profit in the price of an item according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost, believes that the enterprises, which are fitted out with highly productive equipment and have a lower labor-output ratio, can and should increase the output of products by means of the higher yield of this equipment and thereby provide an amount of profit, which is adequate for the formation of economic stimulation funds and for the payment for capital.

The author is correct, if we look at the phenomenon from a narrow sectorial standpoint, when two related enterprises, which have for some reasons a different level of equipment, are compared. But when it is a matter of the solution of a fundamental question which concerns the work of all industry, it is necessary to divert one's attention from the conditions of the operation of specific enterprises and to base oneself on the sectorial features of production, which differ substantially first of all by the nature and quantity of the used means of labor. And the extent of this difference is reflected most completely through the level of the capital-labor ratio. The technology of metallurgical production as a whole requires a higher capital-labor ratio than is required in machine building, while in machine building a higher capital-labor ratio is required than in the sectors of group B. In machine building there are also intrasectorial differences in the technology, which predetermine the higher capital-labor ratio in heavy and power machine building as compared, for example, with machine building for light and the food industries and the higher capital-labor ratio of the latter as compared with instrument making and so on.

However, in recognizing the cost accounting need for the formation of the profit in the price of an item on the basis of the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost and carrying this profit over to the standard of the net output, we thereby are predetermining a certain unequal profitability of the output also under the conditions of the use of the indicator of the standard net output: capital-consuming production, that is, production which requires a high capital-labor ratio, per unit of living labor yields a higher production of the standard net output as compared with less capital-consuming production. In this connection some specialists for the benefit of the achievement of an equal profitability when planning the output of products according to the standards consider it necessary to establish two amounts of the profit for each type of items: a cost accounting amount for the determination of the wholesale price (on the basis of the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost) and a conditional amount for calculating the standard of the new output (according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the wage).

In some cases such a dual approach may be justified. For example, in the electronics and pulp and paper industries the new wholesale prices were calculated and approved prior to the decision of directive organs on the improvement of the economic mechanism, including the determination of the standards of the net output at the same time as the wholesale prices. Therefore, for them as an exception for the purpose of simplifying the calculations of the standards of the net output it was decided to determine the conditional profit according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the wage. This method should not be changed into a general rule.

The point is that the principle of the absolute equal profitability of products in practice is unattainable with any method of measuring the production volume or the labor productivity by comparable measurers regardless of the indicator being used (the commodity or standard net output, the processing cost or the labor-output ratio of production). The use of the standard net output or another labor indicator as compared with the commodity output makes it possible to eliminate only the main and extraneous cause of the different profitability, which is brought about by the different level of the materials-output ratio of specific types of products, which are produced at the given enterprise. The other causes of the different profitability are a result of internal factors of the given works: the uneven reduction of the labor-output ratio of the production of different types of products, the different level of the technology and organization of production, including the different level of the capital-labor ratio.

The cost accounting profit, which is determined within the wholesale price according to the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost, can with every reason be included in the corresponding standard of the net output, since it reflects not only the amount of living labor, but also its productive force, which is directly dependent on the level of its supply with means of labor. Such a profit not only does not distort the standard of the net output, but also makes it more objective from the standpoint of the efficiency of concrete labor and more effective from the standpoint of the stimulation of the better utilization of the available fixed production capital.

As for the ostenibly existing deviation from the Marxist thesis on the surplus product which is created only by living labor, it is necessary to take into account the statements of K. Marx concerning the fact that "...as large-scale industry is developed, the creation of real wealth becomes less dependent on working time and on the amount of expended labor than on the power of those units which are set into motion during the working time.... Real wealth is now appearing... as the qualitative disproportion between labor, which is reduced to a simple abstraction, and the power of the production process which this labor supervises.... Instead of being the main agent of the production process, the worker stands next to it."[3]

In speaking about the need to establish the profit within the wholesale price and the standards of the net output according to the level of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost, it is impossible not to note the possible errors in this new and fundamentally important matter, which is at the stage of formation and perfection. The appropriate analysis of the results still has to be made and conclusions have to be drawn, but two things already now arouse alarm.

First, in the estimated amount of the profit, which a sector needs in normal cost accounting activity, there is taken into account the fee for productive capital in the amount of 6 percent of the total amount of this capital regardless of the intensity of its use. An economic paradox emerges: the worse the fixed production capital is used, the greater the capital-labor ratio is and the higher the amortization deductions, the profit and the standard of the net output per unit of an item are, and vice versa. For example, in 1979 the shift coefficient of workers in the main shops was 1.27 in instrument making, while it was 1.61 in agricultural machine building. A different level of the intensity of use of the production potential is evident, but this did not affect the formation of the estimated profit, prices and the standards of the net output.

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[3] K. Marx and F. Engels, "Soch." /Works/, Vol 46, Part II, p 213.

Second, when determining the standard of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost in a number of sectors of industry, for example, in the USSR Ministry of the Food Industry, they proceeded from the need to maintain the amount of the profit, which had formed in individual subsectors, with allowance made for its subsequent redistribution within the sector for financial reasons which are not connected with production conditions. It is possible that from a financial standpoint this is also expedient; it is possible to do this only through the differentiation of the standards of the profitability as a percentage of the processing cost from 255 percent in wine making to 28 percent in the canning industry. It is hardly advisable to carry over the profit calculated according to such standards to the standards of the net output.

It seems that the workers of economic planning services and pricing in the process of subsequent work on the analysis of the effectiveness of the new wholesale prices and standards of the net output will also direct attention to these two questions.

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LABOR

BANK OF SPECIALISTS FOR SOLVING APPLIED SCIENCE PROBLEMS

Moscow LITERATURNAYA GAZETA in Russian No 16, 15 Apr 81 p 10

[Article by Candidate of Technical Sciences A. Shlayen (Simferopol'): "A 'Bank of Specialists' Is Needed"]

> [Text] "During the 11th Five-Year Plan the development of science and technology should be subordinate to an even greater extent to the solution of the economic and social problems of Soviet society, to the acceleration of the changeover of the economy to the path of extensive development, to the increase of the efficiency of social production" (The Main Directions of USSR Economic and Social Development for 1981-1985 and the Period to 1990).

The problem of increasing the real contribution of science to the national economy is important, pressing and requires the quickest possible solution. The leading directions of the development of industry, new technology, new machines, the organization of our daily life and much else are being elaborated at institutes of applied science. All this faces them with important problems, which today it is impossible to solve thoroughly and comprehensively without the enlistment of specialists of the theoretical sciences--mathematicians, physicists and so on, but they are a rarity at the applied scientific research institute. Many participants in the discussion "Applied Science: Prestige and People," which was held on the pages of LITERATURNAYA GAZETA last year, saw the cause of the situation in the "lack of prestige" of a job at this institute.

Such an explanation, in my opinion, is too vague and superficial. Why would a theorist not go to an applied institute, where there is interesting, promising work, moreover they pay well and, in addition to the wage, they guarantee bonuses for introduction? And introduction itself--the possibility of actually seeing the fruits of one's thoughts and developments--is not that often possible at institutes of basic science. If it were a matter of "prestige" alone, specialists would pour into the applied institute. It is probably a matter of something else.

The applied institute in conformity with its manning table is manned by engineers--specialists of the main specialization. Let us assume that these specialists are the best and the most talented: they know the production technology and the requirements of the sector and therefore firmly occupy the key positions at such an institute.

The theorist (mathematician, physicist, chemist and so on) is not a specialist at the applied scientific research institute, he cannot work on a theme independently, he can only help the specialist solve his question. In order to acquire creative independence, he must study the principles of the specialty of the applied scientific research institute, but time is needed for this, and a lot of it. Moreover, for the solution of a new important problem the management of the institute attempts to find usually a specialist with a reputation on the side, while its own specialist, to whom they have become accustomed, will continue to be left in "secondary roles." At the same time at the basic scientific research institute the theorist immediately becomes an independent staff member with guaranteed advancement in his specialty, that is, everything depends on himself and his abilities. That is probably why he does not want to go to an applied institute.

But industry is posing problems, yet the time of "foam" decisions, that is, ones which lie on the surface like the foam on jam, for the majority of these problems has already passed, one must "dig" deep. The creative cooperation of the theorist and the engineer is necessary for this. It is possible, of course, to teach theoretical sciences to the engineer, but this is an inefficient means--once again time is needed, but the problem for the present is at a standstill. In addition, let us face it here, engineers are different--it is not possible to teach every one.

Under the conditions which really exist in our industry and science, probably only one means of creating the mutually promising and advantageous cooperation of the engineer and the theorist is possible. For this it is possible to organize a special organ--a "bank of specialists," which operates almost on a public basis, that is, with a minimum staff and overhead. The suggestions, on the one hand, of specialists who want to and can solve questions of one specialization or another and, on the other, the orders of institutes on problems of interest to them can be concentrated in this "bank." Moreover, the specialist offering his services does not necessarily have to be a worker of a scientific research institute. This will make it possible to enlist in the solution of important problems a large number of talented people who for certain circumstances or others are not active in science.

The work by means of the "bank," of course, should be performed during nonworking time, while payment should be made according to a direct labor agreement, without the drawing up of any certificates with permission to combine jobs. Unfortunately, the last procedure often causes great troubles at the place of the main job, because the talentless and envious people have not yet been transferred. The value of a development should probably be determined by the institute issuing the theme. And finally, payment should be made only upon completion of the work, for a specific solution, and without consideration of the degrees, titles and salary at the place of the main job, that is, as they say, "according to the labor."

What can such a "bank" provide?

First, it will make it possible to enlist a related specialist not for consultation, but for work for solving a specific problem. In this case the theorist will begin voluntarily to work on a joint problem, without becoming in so doing creatively dependent on the engineer. He will only receive a conscientious and interested expert opinion. The quality of research and the quality of the product being turned out by the scientific research institute will increase because of this.

Second, it will enlist the most talented group of specialists. Since they will pay for a specific job, only a talented person, who is capable of doing it quickly and with the minimum expenditures, will undertake to do it. Moreover, a talented person will find in such a "bank" the possibility of a just reward for his ability. It is very unfortunate that as yet they do not pay for talent. In the same job and in the same position, that is, with the same pay, a talented person spends on the performance of his duties considerably less time than a person of average ability However, no one has been able so far, in my opinion, to give an additional load to such a "free" worker in order to increase his efficiency. By means of the "bank" he will take on an additional load by himself, voluntarily. Although this additional load will be in a different department, it is of no importance--we have one state. Society gains from such work, since the real efficiency of the work of a specialist, his performance will increase.

Third, the theorist, while working on several problems of a single direction and consulting the engineer of this specialization, gradually will actually become a specialist of a narrow field of applied sciences. The talented person gains a reputation for himself in this field. If now he is offered a job at an applied scientific research institute, he will go there as an independent staff member, and this change of profession will take place voluntarily, without expenditures of state capital.

Fourth, the specialist of an applied scientific research institute, while working with the theorist from the "bank," willingly or not will have to increase his theoretical level, and this, to be sure, will have an influence on the overall level of the research of such a scientific research institute and the overall level of the problems being worked on by it.

And, finally, the "bank" will be an additional stimulus of the reduction of the staff. The work of the "bank" specialist has to be paid for, but for this assets are needed, which it is possible to find only by having reduced one's staff and having set aside a certain amount of funds.

It is possible to cite many more positive aspects of the work of such a "bank." For example, abroad such organizations are flourishing.

Of course, when setting up such an organization many questions will arise, many objections with genuine and imaginary apprehensions will appear. This is quite natural in every new matter. But all the questions can be solved in the end.

From everything that has been said, it seems to me, it is clear that the "bank of specialists" will help to solve considerably more rapidly, thoroughly and inexpensively the problems which are being posed to science by industry. Thus, the "bank" will make it possible to solve the problem of increasing the effectiveness of scientific research and to increase its quality, that is, in practice it will realize the slogan about the increase of efficiency and quality.

I am, to be sure, far from thinking that I am offering a panacea to all the troubles of applied science, but, perhaps, my proposal will be useful.

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LABOR

PROBLEMS OF BUDGETING TIME EXAMINED

Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 14, Apr 81 p 10

[Article by Doctor of Economic Sciences V. Patrushev, Candidates of Economic Sciences M. Abryutina and N. Lagutin: "Problems of the Balance of Time of the Population"]

[Text] Time is a unique expanse for the realization of human activity, the main resource of the development of man, social production, the nonproduction sphere and society as a whole. It is possible with every right to assign to time the following conclusion of the report of L. I. Brezhnev at the 26th party congress: "The aim at economy, at the more complete and efficient use of what the country has requires a new approach to many questions of management."

Time has the distinctive feature that it is impossible to accumulate it, to save it up, it continuously passes by and is irreversible in this passage. The limitation of the total amount of the resource of time and the need to observe specific proportions in its use give rise to problems which require close attention.

Production, Wealth and Time

The needs of society for material wealth are continuously increasing, but the time that society can devote to physical production is limited. Moreover, with the increase of needs, the development of the individual and the broadening of the spiritual and social requirements of the workers it should decrease. After all, for the comprehensive development of all the members of society it is necessary to increase the labor in the nonproduction sphere, to increase the available free time during which people do not produce, but relax, add to their knowledge, improve their skills, engage in nonprofessional creative work and a quest for inspiration in professional activity and participate in social life.

The contradiction between the increase of the needs for material wealth and the amount of reserves of working time is resolved by only one means--the increase of the output produced per unit of time. At the same time it is necessary to fight resolutely against the waste of working time and to constantly tighten up labor discipline. For example, output worth more than 1.2 million rubles is produced in a minute in industry. Moreover, the "cost" of the losses of working time with the increase of the scale of production and the complication of economic ties is continuously increasing.

With the changeover of the economy to the path of intensive development the intensification of production processes, their greater and greater acceleration and the adoption of highly productive processing methods and equipment with the facilitation of labor are becoming decisive in the efficient use of working time.

In the leading collectives, when drawing up the drafts of the five-year plan, special attention is devoted to the entire set of measures which promote the reduction of the losses of working time and the efficient use of free time. Among them are the mechanization of production processes, the improvement of working and everyday conditions and educational work, measures of economic pressure on the violators of labor discipline. To use time effectively means to increase the material and spiritual potential of society. Socialist society is constantly expanding the opportunities for the development of the individual.

As a result of an international comparative study of the budget of time of the urban population in 12 countries it was ascertained that the urban working population in the USSR spends more time on studies and self-instruction than in the capitalist countries. In the USSR men spend 4.9 hours a week and women spend 3.5 hours a week as against 0.7 hour in the capitalist countries.

Filled with meaningful activity, free time, by strengthening the health of a person and developing his intellect, thereby increases the productive force of labor--the basis of its productivity. The dialectic unity of working and free time consists in this.

Free time is an important indicator of the wealth of both the individual and society as a whole.

In the Main Directions approved by the 26th CPSU Congress the efficient use of working and free time is examined in unity: " To use working time more efficiently, to reduce its unproductive expenditures and losses, to increase the free time of workers on the basis of the development of services and the facilitation of work in housekeeping, to improve the forms and organization of leisure, especially of young people."

The Use of Available Time

Sample surveys of the budgets of time of the population are conducted in our country both by statistical organs and by scientific institutions. Much in this respect is being done at the Institute of Sociological Research of the USSR Academy of Sciences, which coordinates the research in this area, as well as at the Institute of Economics and the Organization of Industrial Production of the Siberian Department of the USSR Academy of Sciences.

The data of the sample budget surveys show that the total workload (labor in the national economy, the private subsidiary sector and housekeeping) along with education and the pursuits of the population during free time makes up only 54 percent of the total available time. A portion of the time of the living population—approximately 44 percent—is used for meeting physiological needs (sleeping, eating, personal care, treatment).

The degree of utilization of the time of the population is revealed most completely through its balance. The balance of the total time of the population shows how it is allocated for labor, education, the meeting of physiological needs, active and passive pursuits during free time. Such data can be determined for the entire population as a whole and with a breakdown by sociodemographic groups: those working in the national economy, those of able-bodied age who are studying with leave from work, housewives, nonworking retirees and children to the age of 16.

Structure of the Available Time of the USSR Population in the 1970's (percent)

	Able-bodied population	Disabled population	Total
Available time.	60.5	39.5	100.0
including:			
Labor in the public sector.	12.2	0.1	12.3
Internal education.	1.5	2.3	3.8
Labor in the private subsidiary sector.	3.4	0.0	3.4
Labor in housekeeping	7.8	3.8	11.6
The meeting of physiological needs.	23.4	20.2	43.6
Pursuits during free time (including evening and correspondence education)	10.3	12.4	22.7
Other pursuits and unallocated time	1.9	0.7	2.6

We made an attempt to calculate an experimental balance of the time of the USSR population. The data of surveys for individual regions of the country with allowance made for the sociodemographic structure of the USSR population was the basis for it. The results of our calculations can be regarded as approximate, since budget surveys of different years, which moreover did not cover all the socio-occupational groups of the population, economic regions and republics, were used.

In the table the high proportion of labor in the private subsidiary sector and in housekeeping attracts attention. At this stage of development the main reserve of the increase of available free time lies precisely in this area of the expenditures of time of the population. The total of the expenditures of labor in housekeeping and in the private subsidiary sector, according to our calculations, is equal to the labor in the public sector.

On the average each person employed in the national economy accounts, in addition to the main job (about 2,000 hours a year), for another 1,480-1,500 hours of labor expenditures in housekeeping and in the private subsidiary sector, or 28-29 hours a week. This amount is greatly differentiated. In rural areas it comes to 40-50 hours a week.

In order to reduce the total amount of labor at home, to change its structure and to decrease the proportion of difficult manual labor, it is necessary to implement a set of socio-economic measures. The following program is envisaged in the Main Directions of Economic and Social Development of the Country, which were approved by the 26th party congress. It is planned to develop in every possible way personal service, which is called upon to supplant a portion of the labor at home and to replace it by more productive, publicly organized labor. The task is being set to increase the efficiency of labor in housekeeping and in the private subsidiary sector by its mechanization and the provision of implements, tools and materials.

It is no less important to increase in an organized manner the skills of the population in the area of housework and to promote examples of the efficient organization of family labor.

The "food block," when time is spent on the preparation of food, the associated types of labor and the purchasing of products, is the most labor-consuming in housekeeping. The "food block" makes up over 40 percent in the expenditures of household labor.

The improvement of the supply of the population with foodstuffs, at which the food program being elaborated is aimed, and the increase of the proportion of convenience foods in the total volume of the sale of these products to the population will increase considerably the reserve of free time.

The available free time of those working in the national economy is equal to approximately three-fourths of the amount of their labor expenditures in the national economy. For each person employed in social production there are 1,500-1,520 hours of free time a year, or 29 hours a week.

The amount of free time fluctuates greatly among different groups of the population. It is defined as the weighted average of the amount of time, which the representatives of one socio-occupational group or another who participated in the study, spent on free-time pursuits. According to the data of the studies of 1977, for workers the amount of free time among men was 35 hours a week, while among women it was 22 hours. Therefore, the stipulated measures on the improvement of the working and everyday conditions of women and the expansion of the network of children's institutions are of such enormous importance.

The Elaboration of the Balances

Here, there and everywhere we sense a shortage of time, but at the same time we take the liberty of its inexcusable waste.

The inclusion in the passport of the enterprise of data which characterize in hours the length of the work year, the amount of regular and educational leave, measures on serving workers with transport during evening shifts and other measures, might be an effective measure of monitoring the use of the established working time.

In order to cover the problems of the time of the population as a whole, it is advisable to elaborate annual report and planning balances of the time of the population with a breakdown by socio-occupational groups and by territories, first of all by union republics. Such balances can be drawn up by the USSR Central Statistical Administration and USSR Gosplan with the enlistment of scientific institutions. Among the plan assignments, in our opinion, it is necessary to include along with the assignments on the saving of fuel and metal the saving of time, which is achieved in the sphere of physical production by means of the introduction of new technological processes and equipment, the improvement of the organization of production and labor, the reduction of the amount of losses of working time, as well as in the sphere of consumer services, in housekeeping, in the sphere of trade and, finally, the saving of time on the way to work (from work) by means of the improvement of the operation of urban transport.

It is important to make the sample surveys of the time of the population systematic. Such surveys are very labor-consuming, despite the use of computers when processing the primary data. It is expedient to repeat them every 5 years, timing the receipt of the balance of the time of the population and the results of its analysis to coincide with the time of the drafting of the next five-year plan. The experience of conducting the surveys shows that the participation of statistical organs in this work is necessary. Here it is impossible to get by without the forces of scientific research institutes. In the surveys conducted by them, due to the shortage of forces and assets, the program of the survey has often had to be shortened. At the same time the USSR Central Statistical Administration does not have adequate data on the length of the work week (year) of some categories of workers in the sectors of the national economy.

The favorable experience of Bulgaria, where national surveys of the budgets of time of the population over the age of 6 have been conducted and forecasting balances of the time for 1991-2000 have been drawn up on this basis, is well known. The elaboration of balances of time and its consideration in the plans of economic and social development are an important means of the effective use of the working and free time which the population of our country has.

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ANTHOLOGY ON RUSSIAN LANGUAGE IN NATIONAL REPUBLICS REVIEWED

Moscow OBSHCHESTVENNYYE NAUKI in Russian No 2, Mar-Apr 81 pp 155-161

[Review by V. D. Greshchenko of book "Russkiy yazyk v natsional'nykh respublikakh Sovetskogo Soyuza" [Russian Language in the National Republics of the Soviet Union] edited by V. V. Ivanov, USSR Academy of Sciences Institute of Russian Language, Izdatel'stvo "Nauka", 1980, 261 pages]

[Text] This book consists of a foreword and three parts. Part One, reviewed here (eight articles), is devoted to the function of Russian language in the national republics.

The author of the article "Development of the Functions of Russian Language in Kazakhstan" (B. Kh. Khasanov) distinguishes five chronological stages in expansion of the volume of functions played by Russian language; these stages coincide in general terms with the stages of the republic's cultural and economic development: 1) 1917-1921; 2) 1922-1939; 3) 1940-1945; 4) 1946-1953; 5) from 1953 to the present.

In the first years of Soviet rule, the number of persons knowing Russian language in the republic was extremely insignificant. The broad indigenous masses of Kazakhstan did not know Russian yet. But most revealed a conscious desire to learn the language. Russian first began to be used in the sociopolitical life of the cities and towns. New concepts and realities associated with development of the socialist way of life appeared. Russian teachers provided considerable disinterested help to the republic's population in its mastery of Russian.

The second stage was typified by the functioning of Russian language in parallel with universal expansion of the functions of the Kazakh national language. Formation of a multinational population in Kazakhstan had a positive influence on development of the functions of Russian--the language of international communication, as did migration occurring in response to socialist industrialization and collectivization of agriculture, and associated changes in the nationality structure of the population. Mass (occasionally spontaneous) introduction of Russian and international terminology into Kazakh language occurred.

While in the first stage the function of Russian in Kazakhstan was mainly that of propaganda, school instruction (mainly elementary), and the press, beginning with the second half of the 1930's Russian transformed into the language of communication of most of the republic's population, as a language of secondary and higher educational institutions.

Besides scientific and cultural institutions, many industrial enterprises were evacuated into the republic during the Great Patriotic War together with their laborers, engineers, and technicians. In this connection Russian's sphere of action broadened significantly.

Following the war, the number of Russian language users in the republic decreased. But measures such as organization of the Kazakh SSR Academy of Sciences in 1946, creation of new institutions of higher education and secondary schools, and so on led to further growth in the role of Russian as the language of science, education, and day-to-day communication.

The next stage in the function of Russian in Kazakhstan coincided with establishment of developed socialist society. Unprecedented industrial growth in all national economic sectors, development of mineral extraction, and assimilation of virgin land required a large work force. Just in 1954-1955 more than 360,000 mechanics, construction workers, engineers, technicians, and other agricultural specialists, representing the most diverse nationalities, came to Kazakhstan. Russian gained a firm foothold as a means of international communication.

Presently Russian is the language of instruction at 52 higher schools and 220 secondary special educational institutions of Kazakhstan. Sixty-eight percent of all students go to schools teaching in Russian. Not only Russian children but also children of other nationalities living in Kazakhstan are now going to 4,326 Russian schools. But the general status of Russian language studies in the national schools of Kazakhstan is still not in keeping with the demands of modern life--a significant number of rural school graduates are weak in Russian.

A. Orusbayev notes in the article "Kirghiz-Russian Linguistic Relationships" that one of the principal avenues of study and spread of Russian language in the Kirghiz SSR is the secondary school, in which Russian is offered as a study subject. Moreover 259 Kirghiz schools offer parallel classes caught in Kirghiz and Russian. In addition to providing an international education, these schools offer a base for developing national-Russian bilingualism in the republic.

The difference in Russian fluency exhibited by Kirghiz children in rural and urban schools is rather significant. Schoolchildren are less fluent in Russian in rural areas. Russian functions in rural schools as the principal means of communication only in Russian language and literature courses. In the family, in the streets, in public places, and in the fields, Kirghiz rural schoolchildren use their native language.

In the last decade the government and peoples education organs of the Kirghiz SSR have been devoting special attention to preparing specialists in Russian philology in connection with the expanding social functions of Russian. In 1976 the total number of graduating Russian philologists was 6,723 persons, of whom about 70 percent were Kirghiz.

Representatives of 93 nations and nationalities reside in modern Tajikistan (according to the article "Tajik-Russian Bilingualism" by M. I. Isayev and R. I. Khashimov). Beginning with the end of the last century, the culture of the Russian people began to play a noticeable role in development of Tajik culture. The intensity of its influence in Tajikistan grew during the years of Soviet rule, when the Tajik people reached their peak in development of all of their strengths and creative possibilities. The joint struggle against fascism during the Great Patriotic War unified the multinational family of the Soviet people even more firmly. Russian-Tajik and Tajik-Russian linguistic relationships mark these periods of history of the Tajik and Russian peoples.

Three periods can be distinguished in the development of Russian's social functions in Tajikistan: from the moment of Central Asia's annexation to Russia to the Great October Socialist Revolution; from 1917 to the beginning of the Great Patriotic War; from 1921 to the present.

Tajiks came into direct contact with Russians later than other peoples presently residing in the USSR. Russian spread into the territory of Tajikistan for the first time in the late 19th century--after Central Asia's annexation to Russia was completed and the Bukhara khanate, in which the bulk of the Tajik people lived, was made politically and economically dependent on Czarist Russia.

Following the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution and establishment of Soviet rule in Tajikistan, a new period began in the development of Russian's social functions, on the background of general growth in the importance of the functions of Tajiki. The expanded useage of both languages--Tajiki and Russian--was historically the consequence of the Russian people's assistance to the Tajiks in their struggle for Soviet rule, and the socioeconomic, political, and cultural transformations subsequently occurring in the republic.

Internationalization of the republic's population, which was especially intensive in the war years, played a positive role in the spread of Russian language in Tajikistan.

The social and demographic membership of Tajiki-Russian bilinguists predetermines their fluency in Russian. Complete Tajiki-Russian bilingualism is encountered among workers in science, the arts, and literature, instructors at VUZ's, tekhnikums, and secondary schools, physicians, engineers, agronomists, zootechnicians, party and soviet organ employees, industrial enterprise and construction workers, motor transport drivers, tractor mechanics, and combine operators. Deviations from the norm of Russian language fluency are observed in the oral competency of kolkhoz farmers, housewives, individuals employed in public services, and low-skilled workers at small and medium-sized enterprises.

O. O. Nazarov notes in his article "The Function of Russian Language in the Turkmen SSR" that the distribution of Turkmen-Russian bilingualism depends to a significant extent on the ethnic environment. In cities and towns with multinational populations the number of bilingual Turkmens is significantly greater than in the villages in which the representatives of the indigenous nationalities principally reside. There is a direct correlation between expansion of Turkmen-Russian bilingualism and the social and professional activities of Turkmens. Almost the entire Turkmen intelligentsia, which formed in the years of Soviet rule, is fluent in Russian. Most Turkmen laborers who work together with representatives of other nationalities are bilingual. Bilingualism is less frequently encountered in the republic's rural inhabitants, the bulk of whom do not venture out of their home towns. But expansion of the school network, radio, television, movies, the male population's service in the Soviet Army, and enlargement of the number of specialists settling down in rural areas for work after graduating from higher and secondary special educational institutions are promoting expansion of Russian's functions in the countryside as well.

The following schools were in operation in the Turkmen SSR in the 1976-1977 school year: Turkmen schools--1,171, Russian--101, Uzbek--70, Kazakh--39, and mixed--100. One fifth of all students taking Russian language courses are children of Turkmen nationality, and the number of Turkmen parents wishing their children to learn Russian is growing from one year to the next.

The social functions of Turkmen and Russian have expanded significantly in the republic. Turkmen transformed from its prerevolutionary status as a language of routine communication, folklore, and classical poetry into a polyfunctional literary language supporting all spheres of social life. Russian, which had extremely limited functions in prerevolutionary Turkmenia, has become a means of international communication, harmoniously uniting in its functional aspects with the Turkmen language.

Slav-Moldavian relationships, states the article "Typical Traits of Moldavian-Russian Bilingualism" (T. P. Il'yashenko), began to evolve long ago: in the 5th-10th century, in the period of Balkan-Roman communication with southern Slavs and, beginning with the 12th century, with Ukrainians and Russians. Following formation of the Moldavian state (14th century) Old Slavic became the language of commerce. A large number of Ancient Russian words which no longer exist in modern Russian can be encountered in modern Moldavian. This favors development of Moldavian-Russian bilingualism. In general, the sociological and psychological factors behind development of Moldavian-Russian bilingualism are mutually associated with the political, economic, and cultural factors behind development of the life of the Moldavian people and of all nationalities inhabiting the republic.

The history of contacts between the Russian and Georgian languages, writes D. S. Chanturishvili ("Russian Language in Georgia") extends deep into the past. The first period of these contacts falls in the 14th century, and it continues on until Georgia's annexation to Russia in 1801; the second embraces the period from 1801 to 1921--establishment of Soviet rule in Georgia; the third encompasses the Soviet period. Contact between Georgian and Russian may be qualified as marginal in the first period, and as intraregional beginning with 1801.

Today the uses of Russian in Georgia have become much more diverse than prior to the revolution, since the life itself of the Georgian people has become more diverse and richer in its form. Georgian dominates in all spheres of the republic's multifaceted life, but Russian speech may be heard with equal frequency to Georgian in institutions and at large enterprises and construction sites typified by a variegated nationality composition.

In today's Georgia, there are no sociolinguistic factors keeping the broad masses from learning Russian. The existing difficulties are associated mainly with the lack of highly skilled Russian language instructors. However, the rich traditions of bi- and multilingualism in Georgia and the high awareness of the vital necessity of knowing Russian leave no doubts that these and other difficulties will be surmounted.

The next article (authored by G. M. Agababyan, Dzh. T. Garibyan, and B. M. Yesadzhanyan) examines Russian language instruction in Armenia. Russian language was introduced into the curriculum of Armenian schools within the first years of Soviet rule. Prior to 1938 Russian language was first offered in third grade; beginning with the 1938-1939 school year it was offered first in second grade, beginning in 1958 it was first offered in first grade, and since 1975 the possibility for studying Russian language was offered to children 6 years old in connection with establishment of preparatory classes in a number of the republic's schools.

"The Role of Russian as a Means of International Communication in Estonia" (authored by L. S. Baykov, Yu. M. Zlatopol'skiy, and E. N. Pyall') is the last article in this part of the book. The functions of Russian in Estonia are predetermined primarily by the necessities of production and, to a somewhat lesser degree, by personal needs. Growth of Russian's role as a source of information (scientific, sociopolitical) is noted.

Russian is used by the non-Russian population of the Estonian SSR mainly as a means of international communication: at state institutions in contacts with all-union institutions, with state organs of other republics, at enterprises, in hospitals and museums, and so on.

Russian performs a narrower function as a means of personal communication.

Part Two is devoted to the teaching of Russian language at philological faculties of the VUZ's of the national republics, and Part Three consists of a review and a bibliography.

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DEMOGRAPHY

PROBLEMS OF MIGRATION FROM RURAL AREAS

Moscow SEL'SKAYA GAZETA in Russian 22 Mar 81 p 3

/Article by A. Dedul, economic commentator of NOVOSTI PRESS AGENCY: "The City and the Village: The Equalization of the Standards of Living"/

> /Text/ During the past decade in our country, in spite of the natural growth of the rural population (by more than 9 million), its absolute size has decreased by more than 7 million, that is, more than 16 million peasants preferred the city to the village. As a result, as compared with 1970 the proportion of rural inhabitants decreased by 7 percent and at present makes up 37 percent of the total population of the country.

Who Is Leaving the Village and Why?

It would seem that now, when mechanization and automation have affected all the sectors of agriculture, having supplanted unproductive and difficult manual labor, when the peasant way of life and the villages have been provided with all modern conveniences, while the possibilities of spending leisure time in an interesting way are more extensive, finally, when the income of the peasant closely approximates the wages of the industrial worker, under these conditions the outflow of the rural population to the city should have ceased. But it is continuing. What is the reason here? The opinion of the migrants themselves in this respect, although meriting attention, is far from indisputable. They all believe that in the city there are more opportunities in the choice of a job which corresponds to their inclinations and level of education. Services, recreation and so forth are better organized. In short, the city is no "match" for the village.

Specialist believe that the flow of hands from the village to the city as a whole is a positive process. Industry, which is experiencing a shortage of personnel, and services are interested in them.

Meanwhile, if we touch upon the age structure of the migrants, the flow of hands from the village to the city seems one-sided. Primarily young people 16 to 22 years old are leaving the village. They leave primarily to study in a large city. After receiving an education (higher or secondary specialized), the former rural inhabitants link their life forever with the city. Only a portion return after graduating from an educational institution. As a result the village is gradually growing older. A shortage of hands is already being felt today in some regions, for example, the Nonchernozem Zone. The losses are being offset mainly by the intensive saturation of the agrarian sector with various machines and machinery. In 1976-1980 the entire increase of agricultural output in the country was obtained precisely by the increase of labor productivity. In the plans for the 11th Five-Year Plan the main emphasis is placed on the accelerated changeover of agriculture to an industrial base and advanced technologies. This will enable the village, as before, to overcome the consequences of the systematic outflow of the population.

The Minuses of a Large City

The law of migration is extremely simple: people long to go where it seems better to them. From the point of view of the rural inhabitant not burdened with a family (inhabitants with families exceedingly rarely leave the village) it is better in the city, and not in any city, but in a large city. The main flow of migrants is headed precisely to the large cities. This leads to the unjustified expansion of cities and to the loss by them of the advantages which they really have.

It has been established that the larger a city is, the more difficult it is to provide normal living conditions in it. The first thing the rural migrants are confronted with here is the shortage of housing. They have to wait several years until their housing problem is solved.

The process of getting accustomed to the urban way of life progresses with great difficulty for many. The indigenous city dwellers themselves, without noticing it, suffer from the "syndrome of alienation." It is not surprising that the factor of alienation affects much more strongly the psychology of yesterday's rural inhabitant, whom everyone in the village knew and who knew everyone.

Having reached the large city, the former peasants fully realize the practical meaning of a healthy environment, to which they previously never attached importance. Clean air and water, the abundance of green vegetables in the countryside--it goes without saying, for the city--are a benefit which costs much money.

Finally, there is transportation fatigue, which is unknown to the village and from which all city dwellers suffer. The lengthy daily trips by public transportation to work and back exhaust people and take away from them the desire to get out of the house on days off if there is no particular need to do so.

To all the mentioned inconveniences of urban life let us add the constant noise and the increased danger outside the home, which, of course, demands psychological stress. It is not so easy, however, to answer unequivocally the question of where it is better, in the city or in the countryside. Unfortunately, in choosing a large city for permanent residence, the migrant peasants either know nothing or know by hearsay about these inconveniences. But when they have experienced them themselves, they are no longer able to go back, they are the "prisoners" of the large city. The family, the apartment, the group of formed acquaintances, and the acquired habit for the urban way of life--all this firmly holds the former rural inhabitant in the urbanized world and forces him to reconcile himself to many of its shortcomings.

In our discussion the problems and inconveniences of the large city have, perhaps, been enhanced too much. For the indigenous city dweller, who perceives them as something, without which a city would not be a city, they are not of as great importance as they are for the rural inhabitant. How often have you heard from rural inhabitants who come to the city: "How on earth do you live here?" And at the same time the city dweller after a week of his vacation in the countryside is already beginning to miss the city, the way of life which has become customary.

Return Migration Is a Matter of Time

Attentive demographers have already noted the first signs of it. We will not assert that in a year or two the mass out-migration of city dwellers to the village will begin, but it is not to be doubted that the city is losing the monopoly on an appealing way of life. Here is just one example of this: Ivan Denisenkov, chairman of the Kolkhoz imeni Radishchev of Smolenskaya Oblast, annually receives up to 300 letter from city dwellers with the request to accept them as members of the collective farm. I have heard about this from many managers of farms (both sovkhozes and kolkhozes) of the Ukraine, Georgia and Moldavia. And the noteworthy thing is that migrant city dwellers choose, as a rule, economically strong farms, improved villages with a well-developed sphere of cultural and personal services. However, it would be strange if it were otherwise. Only in this way, that is, by putting villages on a modern footing and creating in them good housing, cultural and everyday conditions, is it possible to knock down the wave of migration from the village to the city and in the future, perhaps, to make it mutually intensive. The mobility of the population, as demographers claim, is a sign of the healthy organism of society.

As to the policy of the Soviet state in questions of the regulation of migratory flows, it places the main emphasis on the provision of favorable living conditions both in the village and in the city. However, considering that the village owing to arising historical circumstances has lagged behind the city, today the main attention is being devoted to it. At present one out of every four invested rubles is being channeled into agriculture.

An extensive program of the development of the village was outlined by the 26th CPSU Congress. The construction in the village of well-appointed apartment houses, children's preschool institutions, clubs and other cultural and everyday facilities will be carried out at a leading rate, the provision of rural population centers with centralized heat and gas supply, water mains and sewage systems will be increased. In short, the village, while retaining its traditional advantages, is taking from the city everything that would provide it with a qualitatively better standard of living.

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